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National Aeronautics and  
Space Administration

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# **Investigation of Tidal Displacements of the Earth's Surface by Laser Ranging to GEOS-3**

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# INVESTIGATION OF TIDAL DISPLACEMENTS OF THE EARTH'S SURFACE BY LASER

## RANGING TO GEOS-3

D.R. Bower, J. Halpenny, M.K. Paul and A. Lambert

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## INTRODUCTION

The ultimate objective of this investigation is the measurement of the tidal displacements of the solid earth by laser ranging to the GEOS-3 satellite. Confirmation of earth tide theory through surface measurements of gravity, tilt and strain has been difficult because of the perturbing influences of surface discontinuities, the poor distribution of stations and the lack of ocean tide information. A measurement of surface displacement by laser ranging, although not entirely immune from such effects, constitutes a more direct measurement of the tidal deformations and of the related Love numbers  $h_n$  and  $l_n$ . The accuracy of laser ranging to satellites has now reached a level of between 5 and 10 cm (Vonbun, 1977) and continuing improvements in the dynamic models for satellites and/or the distribution of laser stations should ultimately lead to the detection and measurement of the 30 to 40 cm geometric earth tide.

The present investigation is restricted to the analysis of NASA laser ranging data from three stations at Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, Maryland, Grand Trunk Island and Bermuda in the GEOS-3 "calibration area". Therefore, the necessary conditions for a purely geometric solution for relative station positions are not fulfilled (Escobal et al., 1973) and the determinations of station positions will depend to some extent on the accuracy of the model for the path of the satellite. Results by Smith et al. (1973) for the Beacon-C satellite and a single laser station have shown that the fit of an orbit to a series of satellite passes rarely equals the quality of the laser data. Trends could be seen in the residuals showing departures of 2 or 3 meters from the predicted orbit. Errors in the gravity field, station position or other aspects of the dynamic model were suspected. Our approach has been to determine the effect of errors in the predicted orbit on the

measurement of station movements and to investigate a method designed to minimize the effect of those errors.

### Expected Tidal Displacements

In general, the measured laser station-to-satellite distances are affected both by the tidal displacements of the earth's surface and by the direct effect of the tidal potential on the motion of the satellite. The influence on the orbit of the Beacon-C Satellite, for instance, by the solid-earth and ocean tides (characterized by the Love number  $k_2$  and a phase lag  $\phi$ ) were found by Smith, et al. (1973) from an analysis of the perturbations in the inclination of the orbit. A subsequent fit to the laser range data with this tidal effect included (using  $k_2 = 0.245$  and  $\phi = 3.2$  derived in the previous study) showed that the inferred mean heights of the laser station from 12-hour arcs were not significantly affected. We are assuming in the present study, which employed the orbit prediction and parameter estimation program GEODYNE (Martin and Serelis, 1975), that any small errors in  $k_2$  and  $\phi$  will be a second-order effect on the relative laser station-to-satellite distances for 24-hour arcs.

The theoretical vertical and horizontal displacements of the laser stations in the calibration area due to the solid-earth tide were computed using subroutines NOMAN 1 and, with a small modification, NOMAN 2 (Harrison, 1971). The geometric earth tide in the vicinity of Goddard has a theoretical peak to peak amplitude of about 40 cm in the radial direction and less than 5 cm in the tangential directions (Figure 1), whereas the theoretical peak-to-peak amplitude of differential displacements between Goddard and Grand Turk, for example, is 10 to 15 cm in the radial direction and less than 4 cm in the tangential directions (Figure 2). To a first approximation the earth tide at a laser tracking station can be considered constant over the few

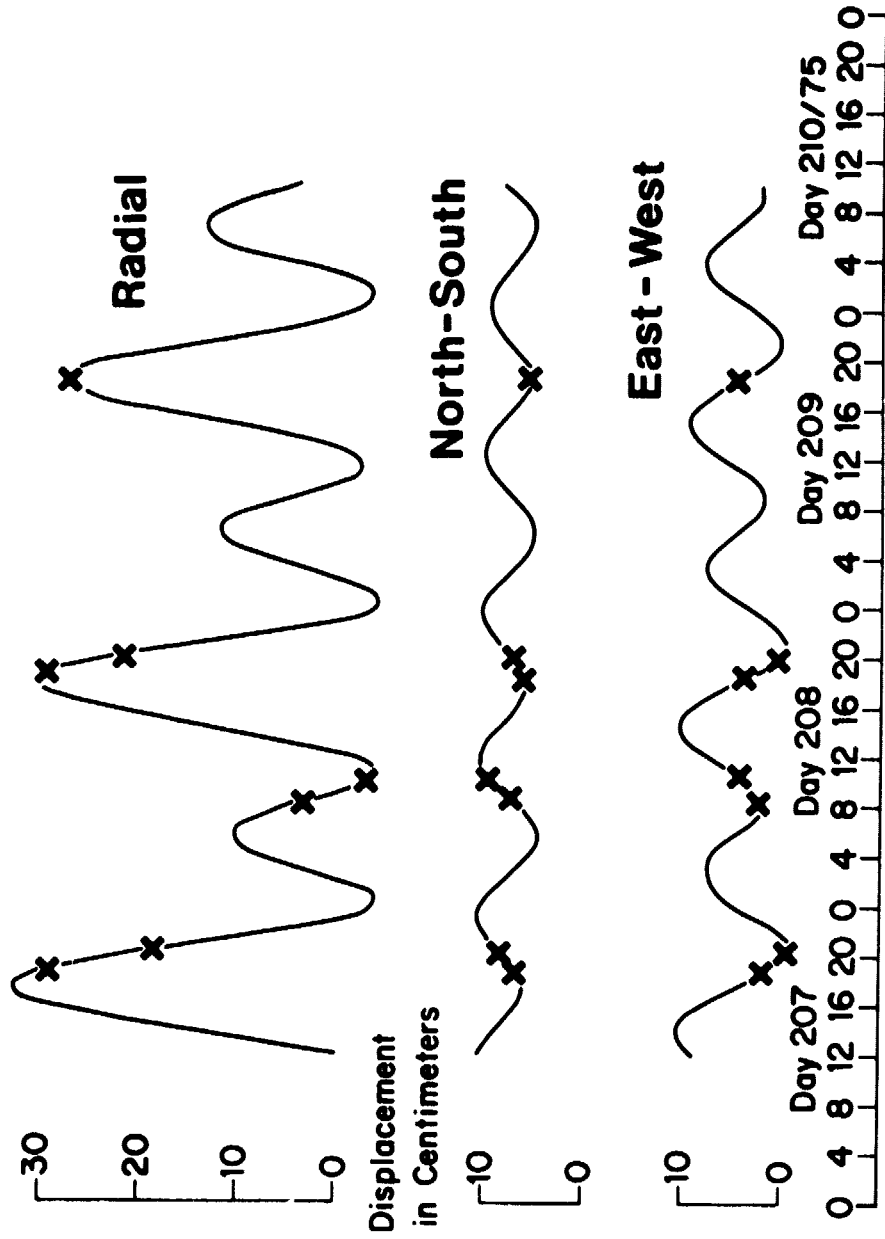


Figure 1. Theoretical tidal displacements at Goddard, M.D. Crosses indicate times of passes observed by Goddard Laser during a three day period.

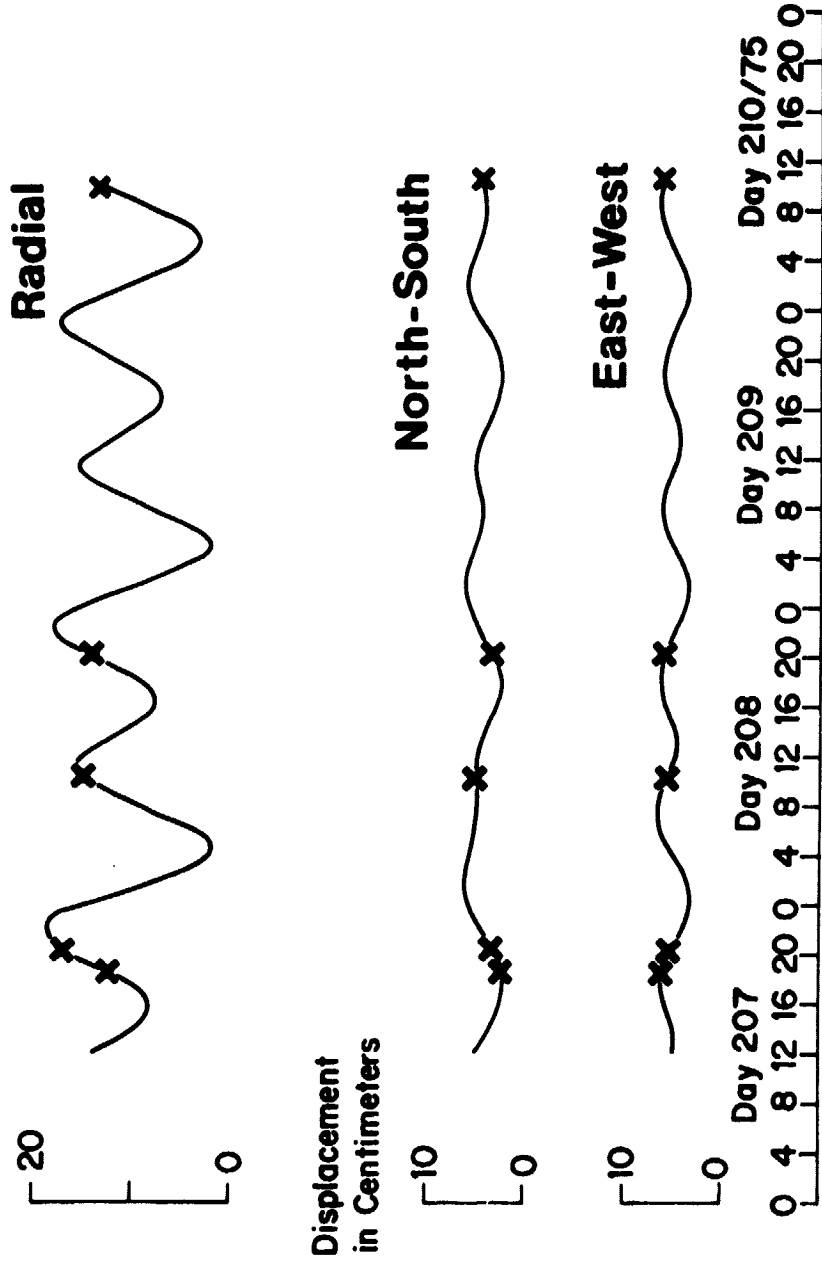


Figure 2. Theoretical differential tidal displacements between Goddard and Grand Turk Island. Crosses indicate the times of passes observed simultaneously by the Goddard and Grand Turk lasers.



minutes of a satellite pass. Ideally, the time sequence of satellite passes depends only on the orbital period of the satellite, the rate of rotation of the earth and the latitude of the tracking station. In practice, problems with laser ranging equipment and the weather reduce the number of usable passes. Vertical displacement of the laser stations due to surface loading by the  $M_2$  constituent of the ocean tide has been estimated by Bower (1976), on the basis of Hansen's (1969) ocean tide model for the Atlantic, to be 0.5 cm, 1.0 cm and 1.2 cm for Goddard, Grand Turk and Bermuda respectively. This small displacement was not considered to be significant relative to other error sources and therefore was not used to correct the station coordinates.

#### EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Two different approaches to the problem of measuring tidal movements of laser tracking stations were investigated. One approach, termed "the dynamic method", employs 24-hour arcs as references for determining pass-to-pass changes in apparent station position. By this method the apparent station movements due to errors in the predicted satellite track as well as the tides have been investigated by an analysis of single-station ranging to GEOS-3. A second approach, termed the quasi-geometric method, attempts to minimize the effects of unmodelled satellite dynamics on the determination of tidal displacements by considering two-station simultaneous ranging to GEOS-3 at the precise time that the satellite passes through the plane defined by the two stations and the center of mass of the earth. This approach takes advantage of the geometrical constraints imposed by two-station ranging and reduces the dependence on satellite dynamics to the prediction of only  $R_0$ , the distance from the earth's center of mass to the satellite.

## 1. Dynamic method

Description - This method employs 24-hour arcs fitted to laser ranging data using the dynamic model incorporated in GEODYNE. 24-hour arcs were chosen for the investigation because they were not inordinately expensive to compute, yet they are long enough to allow the tracking station to sample one complete tidal cycle. Each 24-hour arc comprises 14 or 15 revolutions of the satellite but only four or five passes of ranging data.

Calculations were carried out using force-model parameters and station co-ordinates supplied by NASA. Table 1 lists the two sets of parameters corresponding to the two geopotential models, GEM8 (Wagner et al., 1976) and PGS558 (D. Smith, personal communication, 1977 and Lerch et al., 1977) used during this investigation. In our implementation of GEODYNE, fitting an arc to data from four or five satellite passes corresponds to solving for a set of six orbital parameters at a particular epoch and for a particular drag coefficient. Only the direct tidal perturbation at the GEOS-3 orbit is modelled in GEODYNE and not the tidal displacement of the tracking station.

A least-squares iterative procedure was employed to compute the apparent position of the station with respect to the fitted arc from the laser ranging data taken over each single satellite pass. Two different methods were adopted: -

- (1) The station was allowed to move in all three co-ordinates by solving for incremental adjustments  $\Delta x$ ,  $\Delta y$ ,  $\Delta z$  from an approximate position  $x$ ,  $y$ ,  $z$  by the system of linear equations:

$$2(x-x_i) \Delta x + 2(y-y_i) \Delta y + 2(z-z_i) \Delta z = S_i^2 - P_i^2$$

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF FORCE MODEL PARAMETERS AND STATION CO-ORDINATES USED IN GEODYNE

A. Earth Gravitational Potential Coefficients (Coefficients through degree 30 and order 28)	GEM 8	PGS558
B. Gravitational constant, G (meter **3/ seconds **2)	3.98501400D+14	3.98600800D+14
C. Other perturbations:		
1. Lunar gravitation applied - ratio of lunar mass to Earth mass.	1.229997D-02	1.229997D-02
2. Solar gravitation applied - ratio of solar mass to Earth mass	3.329456D+05	3.329456D+05
3. Gravitation applied for other planets	NONE	NONE
4. Earth tides applied - lunar and solar effects included		
k2 amplitude	0.29	0.29
k2 phase angle	2.500	2.500
k3 amplitude	0.0	0.0
5. Drag applied (D65 JACCHIA 1965 static atmosphere density model used)		
Drag coefficient	2.3	Adjusted
6. Solar radiation pressure applied - 1 AU solar radiation pressure (Newtons/meter **2)	4.500D-06	4.500r-06
- Reflectivity	1.500	1.500
- Satellite Cross Sectional Area (Meters **2)	1.437	1.437
- Satellite Mass (kilograms)	3.459D+02	3.459D+02
D. Goddard station position data (station 7063)		
Co-ordinates-Spheroid height (meters)	9.29200	17.241
North latitude	39°1'13.8800	39°1'13.3507
East longitude	283°10'18.5000	283°10'19.7500
E. Bermuda station position data (station 7067)		
- Spheroid height (meters)		-24.091
North latitude		32 21'13.7636
East longitude		295 20'37.8585
F. Grand Turk station position data (station 7068)		
- Spheroid height (meters)		-19.730
North latitude		21 27'37.7762
East longitude		288 52'4.9584
Earth ellipsoid - semi major axis (meters)	6378155.00	6378145.00
- flattening	1./298.255	1./298.255

where  $S_i$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  observed range to the satellite,  $P_i$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  predicted range and  $x_i, y_i, z_i$  are the predicted earth-fixed satellite co-ordinates,

- (2) The station was constrained to move in only the radial (height) direction by solving for incremental adjustments  $\Delta x, \Delta z$  by the system of linear equations:

$$2(x-x_i) \Delta x + 2(z-z_i) \Delta z = S_i^2 - P_i^2$$

and constraint  $(z/r)\Delta x - (x/r)\Delta z = 0$  where  $r$  is the radius to the station. After two iterations these methods produce station coordinates stable to within 1 mm when the initial position is less than 50 m in error.

Results - During the first year of laser ranging to GEOS-3 there were a number of 24-hour periods during which several passes of the satellite were observed by the Goddard laser. Four 24-hour arcs and one 36-hour arc fitted to Goddard ranging data only were used as references for computing apparent station positions for single passes of the satellite. GEODYNE calculations using the GEM8 geopotential model, appropriate force model parameters and coordinates (Table 1) gave, during a pass, laser ranging residuals, having a small random component of amplitude about 5 cm, plus a systematic component departing 2 to 5 m from the arc. We believe that the random component indicates the precision of the laser ranging and the systematic component represents the inability of the computed satellite track to fit the laser data. The net R.M.S. residuals for the five arcs ranged from 0.45 m to 1.96 m.

Apparent station movements for Goddard were computed for all satellite passes of the five predicted arcs according to the methods

described in the previous section. Method 1, where three-dimensional station position adjustments are allowed for each pass, gave R.M.S. variations in Goddard station position from pass to pass of about 8 m in height and about 11 m in latitude and longitude (Figure 3). In this method the systematic components of the laser range residuals were completely absorbed into apparent station movements, leaving only a random component. The amplitude of the apparent movements depends on the amplitude of the systematic component of range residuals for the pass, on the geometry of the satellite path with respect to the laser station, and on the duration of tracking for each pass. In general, the single-pass station position is poorly determined in a direction normal to the surface containing the satellite path and the station. The resulting large apparent movements in that direction make three-dimensional station position determinations unreliable for the purposes of the present experiment. Method 2, where only changes in station height are allowed, gave significantly smaller apparent movements (Figure 4). Except for one short pass at a low elevation in arc D216/217, the four 24-hour arcs gave R.M.S., variations around 1 to 2 m. in height. An offset in station height of about 15 m. is seen, however, for part of the 36-hour arc. This method does not absorb the systematic components of the range residuals into station movements, yet the estimated standard errors on the apparent movements are in general less than 1 m.

A further decrease in apparent station height movement was achieved in Method 2 by an improvement in the force model. Using geopotential model PGS588 and appropriate station co-ordinates (Table 1), the random component remained the same but the overall R.M.S. residuals were reduced to between 0.14 m. and 0.65 m. for the five arcs (the 36-hour arc D207/208

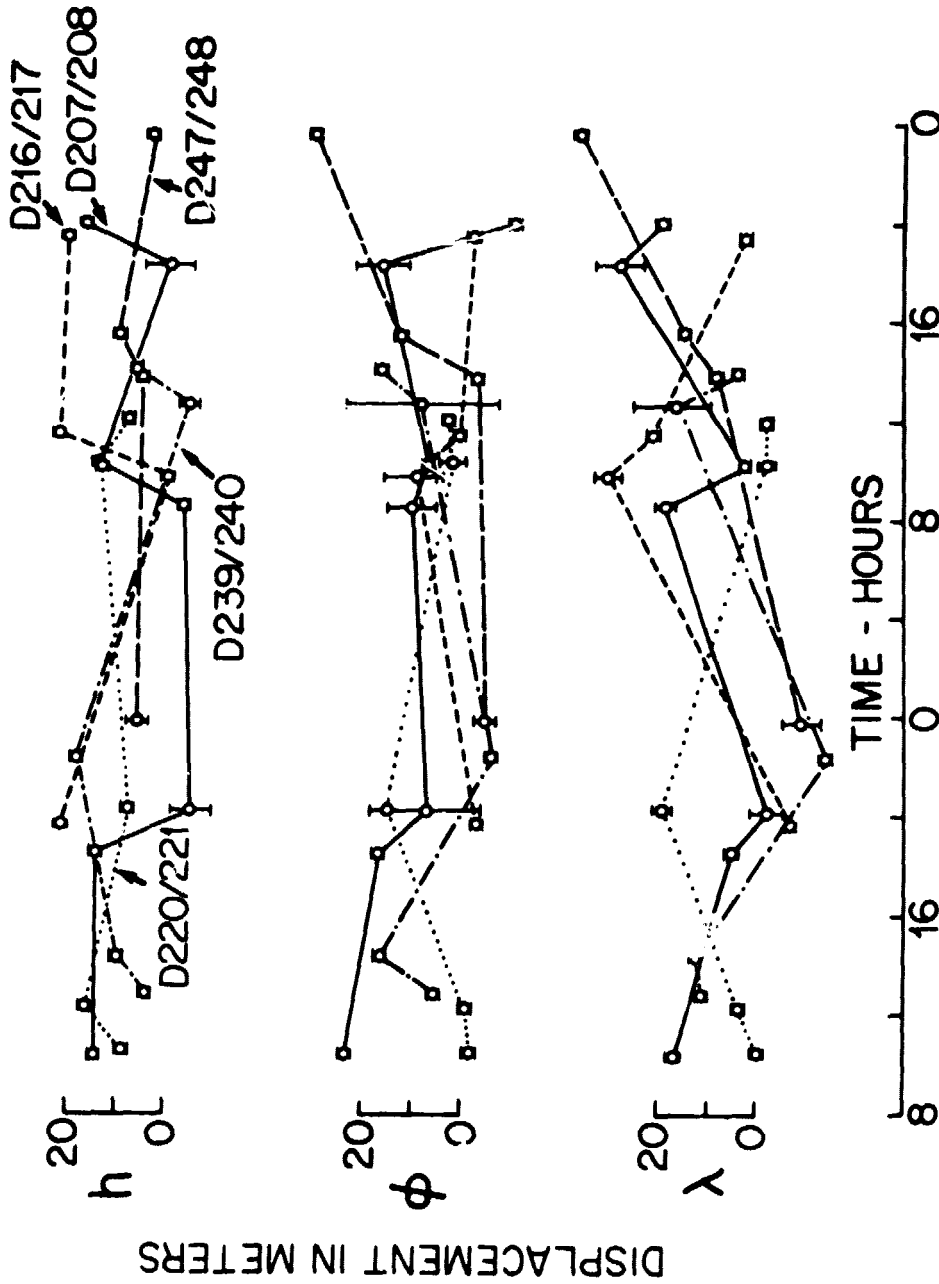


Figure 3. Goddard apparent station movements in height ( $h$ ), latitude ( $\phi$ ), and longitude ( $\lambda$ ) for four 24-hour arcs and one 36-hour arc (identified by their 1975 day numbers). The reference arcs were generated using the GEM 8 geopotential model and corresponding force model parameters of Table 1. The standard error bars denote the uncertainty corresponding to the random component of the laser range residuals.

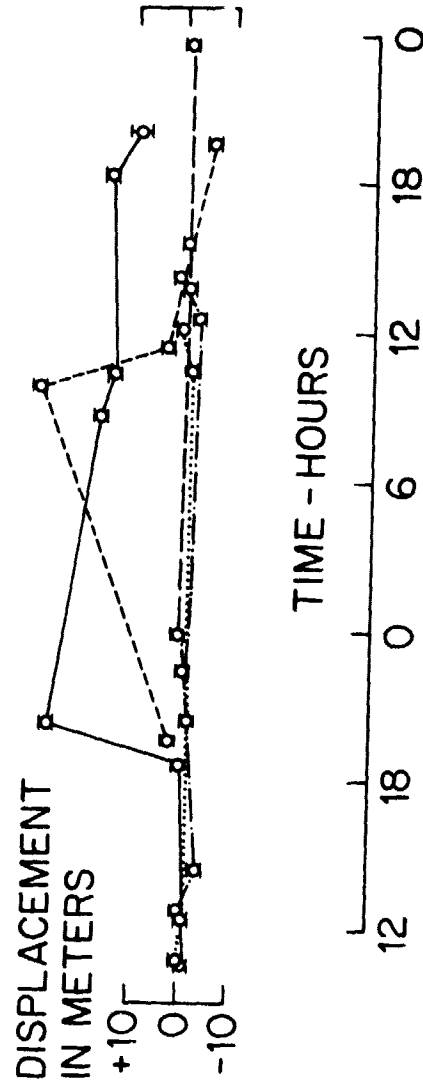


Figure 4. Goddard apparent station movements in height only for four 24-hour arcs and one 36-hour arc. The reference arcs are the same as those used for the results of Figure 3. The standard error bars denote the uncertainty corresponding to the laser range residuals after adjustment of station position. Errors of a fraction of a meter are denoted as one meter on the diagram. The character of the connecting lines identifies the 1975 day number by comparison with Figure 3.

was reduced to a 24-hour arc). Figure 5 shows the resulting apparent station movements for the five arcs, plotted on an expanded vertical scale. The R.M.S. variation in station height for the results of Figure 5 is 0.80 m. and the corresponding value for the theoretical tidal movements is 0.11 m. The detection of vertical tidal movements by this method, clearly, requires further improvements in the dynamic model for the satellite. However, the stability in station height is now good enough to allow the suitability of 24-hour length arcs to be tested. In order to investigate the tendency of 24-hour arcs to absorb the real tidal movements of the laser station, tenfold-amplified theoretical tidal movements in height were introduced into the laser ranging data before computation of the reference (predicted) arcs. Figure 6 compares the induced height variations with those recovered by the method. Although movements up to 1 m are seen, they do not appear to be correlated with the input tides. It must be concluded that 24-hour arcs are able to absorb the geometrical tidal movements of a single tracking station and that they are therefore not suitable as reference arcs for measurement of the geometric tides by the present method. The R.M.S. amplitude of adjustments in the orbital elements and the drag coefficient necessary to absorb the theoretical tides were found to be as follows: semi-major axis, 0.09 cm; eccentricity,  $0.019 \times 10^{-6}$ ; inclination,  $4.7 \times 10^{-3}$  sec; right ascension of the node,  $4.9 \times 10^{-3}$  arc-seconds; argument of perigee, 0.98 arc-seconds; mean anomaly, 0.87 arc-seconds; and drag coefficient, 0.28. These adjustments are equivalent to a movement of the satellite orbit in space of the order of 20 m in both the radial and tangential directions. The changes in orbital elements are smaller by two to three orders of magnitude than the variations in orbital elements of



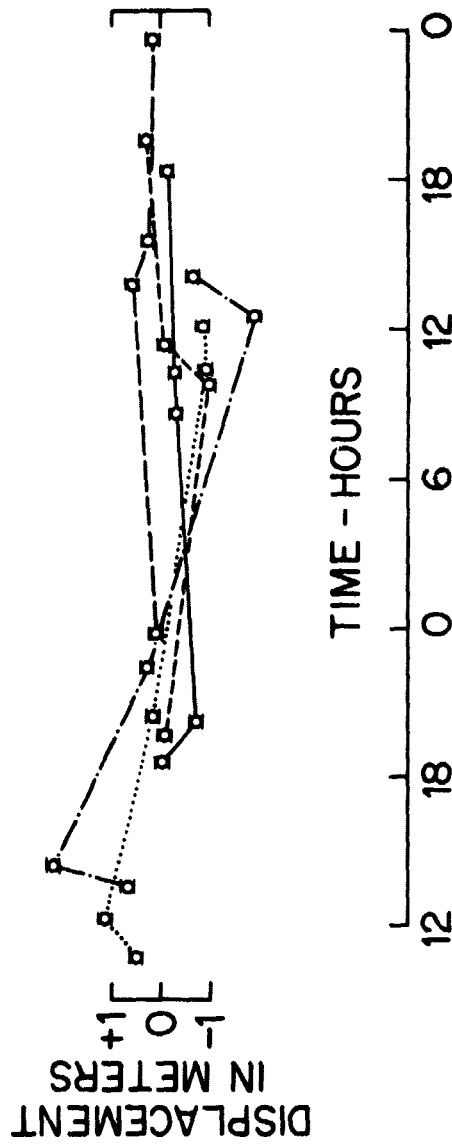


Figure 5. Goddard apparent station movements in height only for five 24-hour arcs. The reference arcs were generated using the PGS558 geopotential model and corresponding force model parameters of Table 1. All standard errors were less than the 14 cm denoted on the diagram. The character of the connecting lines identifies the 1975 day number; see Figure 3.

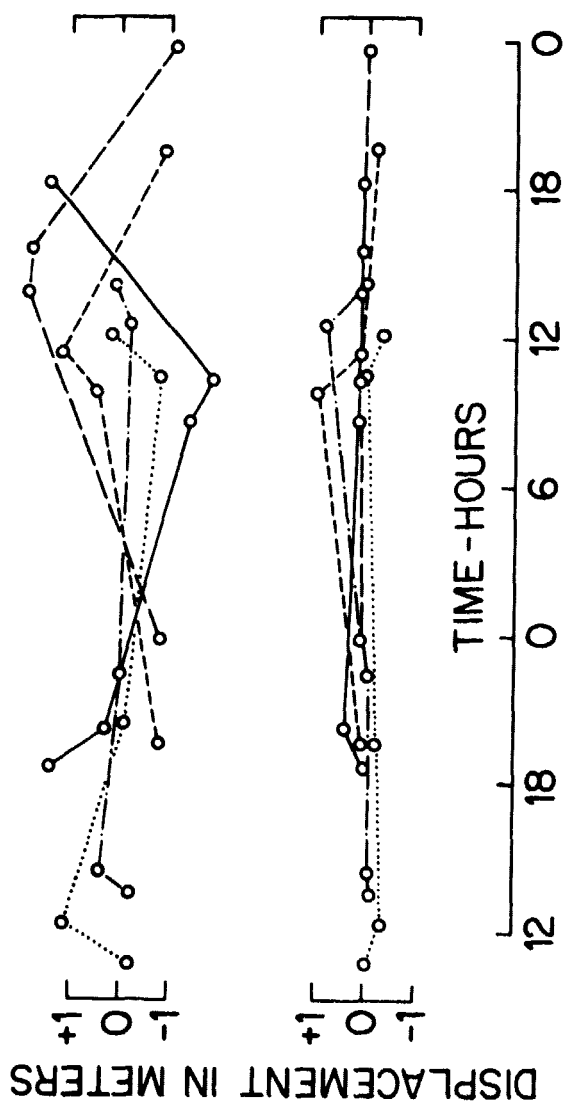


Figure 6. Comparison of tenfold theoretical vertical movements (upper panel) with vertical movements recovered by the dynamic method (lower panel). All standard errors less than 0.10 m. The character of the connecting lines identifies the 1975 day number; see Figure 3.

6-hour, four pass, arcs for the Beacon-C satellite due to direct tidal perturbations on the satellite orbit (Smith et al., 1973). Future attempts to measure the geometric tide by the method outlined will require both the selection of longer reference arcs and a more accurate force model.

## 2. Quasi-Geometric Method

Description - This method is based on a solution found by Paul (1976) for the difference in elevation between two laser stations which are simultaneously ranging on a satellite. Since the details of this solution have not yet been published its derivation as well as its significance are discussed in the Appendix. It can be found there that the solution is a complex non-linear relation involving the range measurements, the mean geocentric distance of the two stations, the angular distance between the stations and the geocentric distance to the satellite. We use the term quasi-geometric in describing the present application of the solution because only the satellite radial distance must be known independently and this only for a few seconds around the time when the satellite crosses the vertical plane through the two laser stations. The radial distance is normally the best predicted satellite coordinate and has the smallest rate of change; typical rates for GEOS-3 are 5 - 10 meters per second.

It can be shown (see Appendix) that at the instant the satellite crosses the vertical plane through the stations ( $g=0$ ) there is a non-linear relation involving only the parameters  $R_m$  (mean of the geocentric distances of the two stations),  $2\omega$  (angular separation of the stations),  $2h$  (difference in the geocentric station distances),  $R_0$  (radial distance to the satellite), and  $S_1, S_2$  (the range distances

from the stations to the satellite) and not involving the parameters of the satellite position  $x$  and  $g$ . The relation is:

$$\sin^2 \omega [R_m \{2(R_0^2 + R_m^2 - h^2) - S_1^2 - S_2^2\} + h \{S_1^2 - S_2^2\}]^2 + 16R_0^2(R_m^2 - h^2)^2$$

$$\sin^2 \omega \cos^2 \omega + \cos^2 \omega [h \{2(R_0^2 - R_m^2 + h^2) - S_1^2 - S_2^2\} + R_m(S_1^2 - S_2^2)]^2 = 0 \quad (1)$$

The instant that the satellite crosses the station-plane, where relation (1) holds, can be found either from a single pass fit to the range data by the program GEODYNE or by an extremum method employing the range data directly and the parameter  $h$ . By the extremum method, relation (1), although it only holds true at  $g = 0$ , can be used to generate values of the parameter  $h$  for satellite positions where  $g \neq 0$ . It can then be shown (see Appendix) that the instant of station plane crossing ( $g = 0$ ) is identified by the point when the computed  $h$  values reach an extremum.

Before proceeding further we write the nonlinear equation (1) in terms of the non-time varying parts of the station radii,  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  and the tidal Love number  $h_2$ . Thus:

$$R_{1i} = N_1 + h_2 \tau_{1i} \quad (2)$$

$$R_{2i} = N_2 + h_2 \tau_{2i} \quad (3)$$

where  $\tau_{1i}$  and  $\tau_{2i}$  are the equilibrium tidal displacements of the stations in the radial directions, during the  $i$ -th pass.

and:

$$R_{mi} = (R_{1i} + R_{2i})/2 = (N_1 + N_2)/2 + h_2(\tau_{1i} + \tau_{2i})/2 \quad (4)$$

Substituting expressions (4) and (5) into (1), and neglecting tidal variations

in  $\omega$ , we obtain for the  $i^{\text{th}}$  plane crossing a non-linear equation in  $R_{0i}$ ,  $S_{1i}$ ,  $S_{2i}$ ,  $N_1$ ,  $N_2$ ,  $h_2$  and  $\omega$  which we can represent by:

$$F_i(R_{0i}, S_{1i}, S_{2i}, N_1, N_2, \omega, h_2) = 0 \quad (6)$$

Here  $R_{0i}$  is the radial distance to the satellite and  $S_{1i}$  and  $S_{2i}$  are the laser ranges from stations 1 and 2 to the satellite, all at the instant the satellite crosses the plane. Given four or more such plane crossings, separated sufficiently in time so that the coefficients of  $h_2$  are not simply a linear combination of the coefficients of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ , we solve for  $N_1$ ,  $N_2$ ,  $\omega$ , and  $h_2$  by the Newton Raphson method. We make a first estimate of the parameters  $N_1^0$ ,  $N_2^0$ ,  $\omega_2^0$ , and  $h_2^0$ , then improved values  $N_1$ ,  $N_2$ ,  $\omega$ ,  $h_2$  are found by correcting the initial values by the amounts  $\Delta N_1$ ,  $\Delta N_2$ ,  $\Delta \omega$ ,  $\Delta h_2$  obtained by solving the following system of linear equations:

$$\frac{\partial F_i}{\partial N_1}(N_1^0) \Delta N_1 + \frac{\partial F_i}{\partial N_2}(N_2^0) \Delta N_2 + \frac{\partial F_i}{\partial \omega}(\omega^0) \Delta \omega + \frac{\partial F_i}{\partial h_2}(h_2^0) \Delta h_2 = F_i(R_{0i}, S_{1i}, S_{2i}, N_1^0, N_2^0, \omega^0, h_2^0) \quad (7)$$

$i = 1, 2 \dots k$  where  $k \geq 4$

Using the improved values of the unknown parameters a new set of differentials are calculated and the procedure is repeated until convergence is achieved.

Results - Laser ranging data from stations at Goddard, Grand Turk and Bermuda were examined for the presence of quasi-simultaneous measurements to GEOS-3 during plane crossings in the months of July and August in 1975 and February in 1976. Only five usable crossings were found throughout July and August and none at all in February.

There were many other instances of plane crossings but, for these, laser data was not available from both stations.

Details regarding these five passes are listed in Table 2. The time shown is approximately that of the plane crossing and the columns of partial derivatives are with respect to the function  $F$  described earlier. The plane is identified by numbers referring to the stations which define the plane, where 1, 2 and 3 refer to Goddard, Grand Turk and Bermuda respectively. The columns headed  $d_1$ ,  $d_2$  and  $d_3$  are the calculated equilibrium radial displacements in meters at the three stations due to the earth tide (i.e.  $h_2 = 1.0$ ). The derivatives are dimensionless.

About the times of each pass, values of  $R_0(t)$  were found from 24-hour arcs calculated on the basis of Goddard range measurements only (See Section 1, Dynamic Method). A linear equation of the form of equation (7) but involving the unknowns:  $\Delta N_2$ ,  $\Delta N_3$ ,  $\Delta \omega_{13}$ ,  $\Delta \omega_{23}$  and  $\Delta h_2$ , was obtained for each of the five plane crossings. The nominal values assumed for the station coordinates were those given in Table 1 for the PGS558 model. The result of solving the five simultaneous equations is given in Table 3 for four cases, where  $\Delta R_2$  and  $\Delta R_3$  are the calculated differences between the true radial distances to the laser stations determined here and the nominal distances assumed. Similarly,  $\Delta \omega_{13}$  and  $\Delta \omega_{23}$  are the differences between calculated and nominal station separations expressed in terms of great

TABLE 2: Details for the five plane crossings used.  
(See text for explanation)

DATE	TIME(UT)	PLANE	$\frac{\partial F}{\partial R_2}$	$\frac{\partial F}{\partial R_3}$	$\frac{\partial F}{\partial R_0}$	$\frac{\partial F}{\partial \omega}$	$\frac{\partial F}{\partial S_1}$	$\frac{\partial F}{\partial S_2}$	$d_1$	$d_2$	$d_3$
D207/75	18:31.88	2-3	-.094	-1.094	-1.285	-0.370	0.216	1.151	-.167	-.163	-.148
D220/75	10:40.58	1-3	5.231	4.231	9.763	-8.672	5.687	6.375	-.125	.080	.030
D220/75	20:21	2-3	-2.439	-3.439	-6.136	-5.532	3.492	4.178	-.241	-.217	-.152
D239/75	12:42.98	1-3	-0.636	-1.636	-2.590	-1.719	1.133	1.958	.180	.266	.187
D239/75	22:23.02	2-3	-0.373	-1.373	-1.926	-1.185	.714	1.519	-.001	.161	.061

Table 3: Calculated corrections to  $R_2^0$ ,  $R_3^0$ ,  $\omega^0$  and  $R_0^0$  in metres, calculated  $h_2$  and standard deviations for five plane crossings (\*denotes an enforced value).

$\chi$	Solution 1	Solution 1A	Solution 2	Solution 2A	$\sigma(\chi)$	$\frac{\partial \chi}{\partial R_0}$
$\Delta R_2$	14.284	0.937	15.679	1.090	16.335 $\sigma(R_0)$	6.179
$\Delta R_3$	1.148	-2.459	1.069	-2.874	1.185 $\sigma(R_0)$	1.670
$\Delta \omega_{13}$	-0.088	-0.948	0.047	-0.893	1.107 $\sigma(R_0)$	0.398
$\Delta \omega_{23}$	4.656	-0.541	5.026	-0.655	6.962 $\sigma(R_0)$	2.406
$\Delta h_2$	3.512	0.721	3.702	0.652	4.984 $\sigma(R_0)$	1.292
$\Delta R_0$	0.0*	2.160*	0.0*	2.361*		

circle distance.  $\Delta R_0$  represents the mean error in the predicted radial distance to the satellite for the five plane crossings. The result shown as  $\Delta h_2$  is that value of the Love number  $h_2$  which satisfies the five equations (i.e.  $h_2^0 = 0$ ).

For Solution 1 the function  $R_0(t)$  was assumed correct and  $\Delta R_0$  was set equal to zero. It is known from seismological and other evidence however that  $h_2 \approx 0.615$  and thus the result found here for  $h_2$  is clearly faulty. This suggests errors in  $R_0(t)$  and although it is impossible to know  $\Delta R_0(t)$  without further information, the presence of a systematic error in  $R_0(t)$  throughout all passes was tested for by finding that constant value of  $\Delta R_0$  which produced the smallest sum of the squares of  $\Delta R_2$ ,  $\Delta R_3$ ,  $\Delta \omega_{23}$  and  $\Delta \omega_{13}$ . This required  $\Delta R_0 = 2.162$  m and substitution of this value yielded the results listed as Solution 1A. Note that  $\Delta h_2$ , which was not included in the minimization constraint, is now very close to the theoretical value. A further change of only 8 cm in  $\Delta R_0$  would in fact make  $h_2 = 0.615$ .

A second source of error in  $R_0(t)$  considered was that due to the geometric effect of the earth tide on the height of the Goddard laser. Since this geometric effect was not taken into account in fitting the five orbits at least part and probably nearly all of the geometric tide would be reflected in  $R_0(t)$ . The geometric tide for Goddard is given by  $h_2 d_1$  where  $d_1$  is listed in Table 3. To determine the effect of this on our results the five simultaneous equations were adjusted on the assumption that all of the geometric tide was reflected in  $R_0(t)$  and the system of equations then solved as before. The results presented in solutions 2 and 2A are the counterparts of solutions 1 and 1A after this adjustment is made. Note that the sum of the squares of the errors shown



for solution 2A is slightly larger than for 1A but  $h_2$  is closer to the theoretical value.

Estimates of the effect of random errors in  $R_0(t)$  on the solutions are presented in column 6 in terms of the standard deviation of  $R_0(t)$  about true values. If we suppose either that the nominal station coordinates adopted for this analysis are correct within 1 - 2 m or that the Love number is known to be 0.6 then the results require  $R_0(t)$  to be systematically less than the given values by about 2.0 m with a much smaller random error.

#### CONCLUSIONS:

The 5 cm precision of laser ranging measurement is certainly adequate for the observation of the 40 cm geometric earth tide, or even the 14 cm differential tide between two stations which can observe a satellite simultaneously. However, we cannot yet predict an orbit based on one tracking station and 24 hours of data which is stable enough to be used as a platform to observe the total tidal displacements.

The present dynamic model, employing gravitational field model PGS 558, fits 24-hours of laser data from a single station leaving systematic residuals during a pass of up to 1 meter, and resulting in apparent station movements in height of comparable amplitude, thus hiding the tidal variation. Even in the absence of imperfections in the dynamic model, however, 24-hour arcs would tend to absorb the tidal movements of a single tracking station leaving the pass-to-pass apparent station heights unchanged. Longer arcs or arcs using data from more than one laser should be less likely to absorb the geometric tides, but they would be expected to fit the laser data less well because of errors in the force model assumed.

The quasi-geometric method is influenced significantly less than the dynamic method by errors in the predicted satellite position because this method only requires a knowledge of the radius to the satellite and it is sensitive principally to the differential tidal displacements between laser stations. Due to the stringent conditions that must be met for a usable plane-crossing to occur, however, there has been difficulty in finding a sufficient number of plane crossings for a rigorous statistical test of this method as it is presently implemented. But, for five passes over the calibration area that satisfy the criteria, a good approximation to the theoretical Love number  $h_2$  is obtained when a systematic bias of 2.16 meters is allowed in the radial distance to the satellite. This bias is justified independently by the assumption that the nominal station coordinates are correct within 1 - 2 m. The value of  $h_2$  appears to be reasonably insensitive to changes in the predicted radial distance to the satellite due to absorption of the tidal movements of Goddard by the predicted arcs.

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# APPENDIX: PROOF OF THE EXTREMUM METHOD OF STATION-PLANE IDENTIFICATION

Let us consider a reference system of spherical coordinates with origin at the centre of the earth  $O$  and axis  $OZ$  perpendicular to the plane  $Q_1A_1OA_2Q_2$  passing through the centre of the earth. The radial directions to the ground stations  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are extended to points  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  such that  $OQ_1 = OQ_2 = R_0$ , the radial distance of the satellite at any instant from the centre of the earth. The axis of meridional reference  $OX$  in this plane bisects the angle  $Q_1OQ_2$ . Then, with  $g$  as the perpendicular arc from the position  $\sigma$ , of the satellite to this plane and  $x$  as the arc from the foot of this perpendicular to the bisector  $OX$ , the coordinates of the satellite can be denoted as  $(R_0, g, x)$ . Also  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  can be represented in the same system of reference by the coordinates  $(R_M+h, 0, \omega)$  and  $(R_M-h, 0, \omega)$  respectively, where  $R_M$  is the mean radius to the ground stations,  $2h$  is their elevation difference and  $2\omega$  is the angle they subtend at the centre of the earth. Then laser ranges  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  which are linear distances from the satellite to ground stations  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  respectively will be given by the equations

$$S_1^2 = R_0^2 + (R_M+h)^2 - 2R_0(R_M+h) \cos g \cos (\omega+x) \quad (A1)$$

$$S_2^2 = R_0^2 + (R_M-h)^2 - 2R_0(R_M-h) \cos g \cos (\omega-x)$$

These are the basic equations which are used to evaluate  $h$  from the observations  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . In developing our method of solution for  $h$ , we assume that  $\omega$  and  $R_M$  are constants which are known before-hand. Range observations  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  as well as the radial distance to the satellite

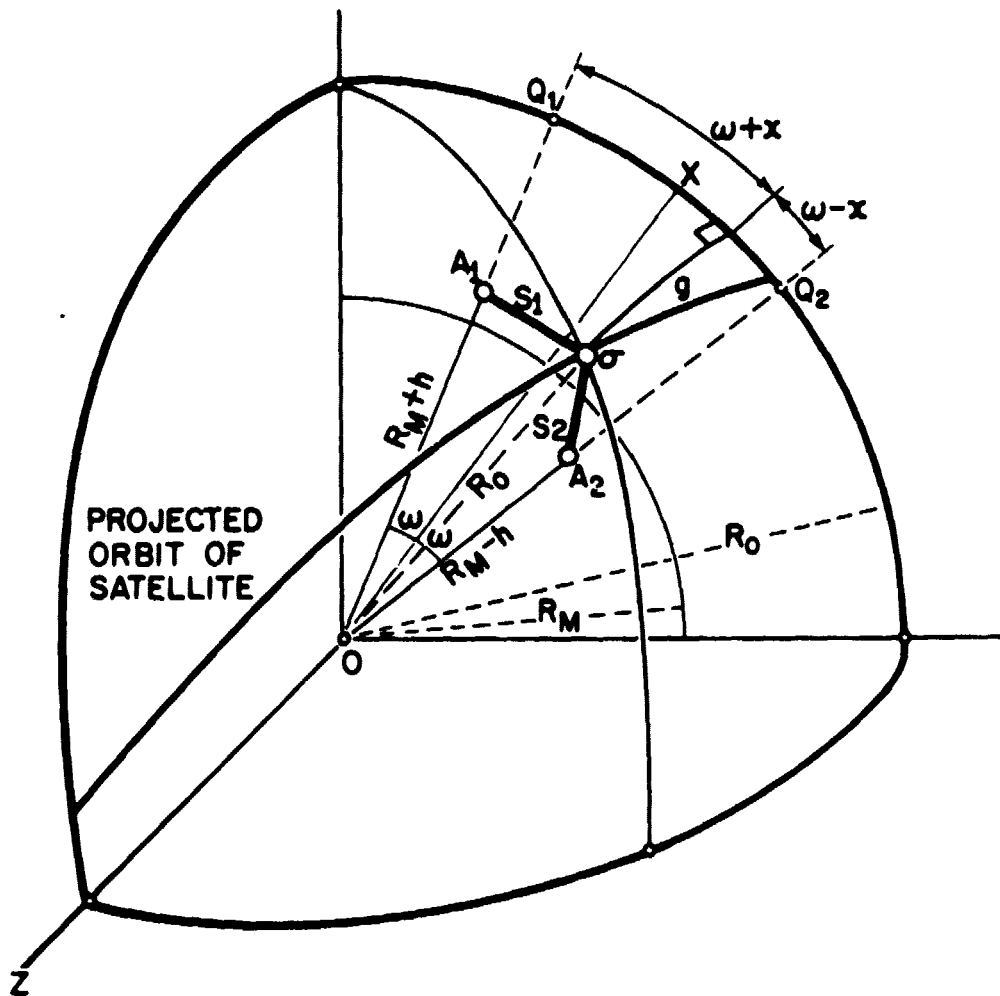


Figure 7. Co-ordinate system for proof of extremum method of station-plane identification. Ranging is done from stations  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  in the station-plane to the satellite at position  $o$ . The origin is taken at the earth's center of mass.

$R_0$  which vary with time are assumed to be available at discrete instants of time.

The problem is not solvable in its present form since, corresponding to  $n$  given sets of  $(S_1, S_2, R_0)$  values, we have  $n$  pairs of equations of the type (A1) involving  $2n+1$  unknowns viz.,  $n$  different  $g$ 's,  $n$  different  $x$ 's (as  $g$  and  $x$  vary with time) and a constant  $h$ . Thus, the number of unknowns being more than the number of equations by one, no unique solution for  $h$  will be possible unless an additional condition for the problem is made available.

To obtain this, we consider a second pair of equations

$$\begin{aligned} S_1^2 &= R_0^2 + (R_M + H)^2 - 2R_0(R_M + H) \cos(\omega + X) \\ S_2^2 &= R_0^2 + (R_M - H)^2 - 2R_0(R_M - H) \cos(\omega - X) \end{aligned} \quad (A2)$$

where  $H$ , unlike  $h$ , and  $X$ , different from  $x$ , vary with time.

Eliminating  $X$  between the two equations in (A2), we can write

$$\begin{aligned} 16R_0^2(R_m^2 - H^2)^2 \sin^2 \omega \cos^2 \omega &= \sin^2 \omega [R_m \{2(R_0^2 + R_m^2 - H^2) - S_1^2 - S_2^2\} + H(S_1^2 - S_2^2)]^2 \\ &+ \cos^2 \omega [H\{2(R_0^2 - R_m^2 + H^2) - S_1^2 - S_2^2\} + R_m(S_1^2 - S_2^2)]^2 \end{aligned} \quad (A3)$$

from which  $h$  can be obtained when other quantities are known. We have developed a subroutine which computes  $H$  iteratively, starting from the initial value of  $H=0$ .

If we assume the x-eliminant between the equations in (A1) can be formally written as

$$h = F(S_1, S_2, R_0, \cos g) \quad (A4)$$

then, the similar equation for H will be

$$H = F(S_1, S_2, R_0, 1) \quad (A5)$$

which is another form of (A3).

Differentiating (A4) with respect to time t and remembering that h is independent of t, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = & \frac{\partial F}{\partial S_1} (S_1, S_2, R_0, \cos g) \dot{S}_1 + \frac{\partial F}{\partial S_2} (S_1, S_2, R_0, \cos g) \dot{S}_2 \\ & + \frac{\partial F}{\partial S_1} (S_1, S_2, R_0, \cos g) \dot{R}_0 + \frac{\partial F}{\partial \cos g} (S_1, S_2, R_0, \cos g) \dot{g} \end{aligned} \quad (A6)$$

Substituting in (A6)  $t=t_0$  corresponding to  $g=0$ , we have

$$0 = \frac{\partial F}{\partial S_1} (S_1, S_2, R_0, 1) \dot{S}_1 + \frac{\partial F}{\partial S_2} (S_1, S_2, R_0, 1) \dot{S}_2 + \frac{\partial F}{\partial R_0} (S_1, S_2, R_0, 1) \dot{R}_0 \quad (A7)$$

which, when compared with the equation obtainable from differentiation of (A5) with respect to t, yields:

$$\dot{H} = 0 \text{ when } g = 0.$$

Consequently, from comparison of (A1) and (A2), we find that when  $\dot{H} = 0$  corresponding to  $g = 0$ ,  $H = h$ .

Thus, the equation (A8) is the additional relation that is needed to obtain h uniquely.

In practical computation, values of H are computed iteratively from each set of  $(S_1, S_2, R_0)$  values, using the subroutine based on (A3). The plot of these values of H against time would show a smooth curve with an extremum (i.e.  $\dot{H} = 0$ ) occurring at the instant when the satellite crosses the vertical

plane through the ground stations (i.e.  $g=0$ ). For precise computation of this instant, four consecutive values of  $H$  are selected such that  $H(t_{k+1})$  and  $H(t_{k+2})$  are either both greater than or both less than  $H(t_k)$  and  $H(t_{k+3})$ . A third-degree polynomial in time is then fitted to these values of  $H$  to obtain the extremum value for  $H$  and this is the value of  $h$  we require. This part of the computation is implemented by a second subroutine.

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